

THE HOME ENVIRONMENT AND MATERNAL ALIENATION: THEIR RELATIONSHIP  
WITH THE SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN

By

MARCUS RALPH EARLE

B.S., University of Redlands, 1983

---

A MASTER'S THESIS

submitted in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Family and Child Development

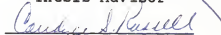
KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY  
Manhattan, Kansas

1985

Approved by:



Thesis Advisor



Major Professor

LD  
2668  
.T4  
1985  
E22  
c.2

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

A11202 640629

	PAGE
Acknowledgements.....	i
List of Tables.....	ii
List of Figures.....	iii
CHAPTER I	
Introduction.....	1
CHAPTER II	
Literature Review.....	3
CHAPTER III	
Methods.....	28
Sample.....	28
Instruments.....	29
Procedure.....	33
CHAPTER IV	
Results.....	34
CHAPTER V	
Summary and Discussion.....	46
References.....	52
Appendix	
A. Iowa Social Competency Scales - School-Age (Mother Form)	
B. Kansas Home Interview Scales	
1. Demographic Data	
2. Parent-Child Involvement	
3. Anomia	
4. Environmental Assessment Index	
Abstract	

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This can only be considered a partial thank you to all who have been involved in this project. My deepest appreciation belongs to Robert H. Poresky for his teaching me the wonders of computers, spending extra hours guiding me through this thesis, and his continual optimism. Also deserving much gratitude is Candyce S. Russell for her support and peaceful demeanor, not only with this project, but through my two years at Kansas State. I also want to thank Anthony P. Jurich and the inspiration his boundless energy has provided. It is extremely difficult to adequately express my appreciation to these three people. To my parents and family I can only pray that they will understand my deep love and appreciation for their prayers and support, without which I would not have made it. Finally, it is not possible to finish without thanking my wife, Robin, for all her support, patience and love these past two years.

THANK YOU,

Marcus Ralph Earle

# LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
1	Antecedent Variables (Means and Standard Deviations)	35
2	Iowa Social Competency Scales (Means and Standard Deviations)	36
3	Longitudinal Correlations of First Year Antecedent Variables with Third Year I.S.C.S. Scales	39
4	Concurrent Correlations of Third Year Antecedent Variables with Third Year I.S.C.S. Scales	40
5	Correlation of First Year Antecedent Variables with Third Year Antecedent Variables	45

# LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE		PAGE
1	Longitudinal Analysis of the Environmental Assessment Index with the I.S.C.S. Leader Scale	42
2	Longitudinal Analysis of the Environmental Assessment Index with the I.S.C.S. Apprehensive Scale	42
3	Longitudinal Analysis of Family Size with the I.S.C.S. Leader Scale	43
4	Longitudinal Analysis of Mothers' Education with the I.S.C.S. Physically Active Scale	43

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this thesis was to explore the effect of the home environment and mother's feelings of social alienation on children's social development. Studies of major themes of children's social development, such as attachment, aggression, locus of control, moral development, and altruism are reviewed. The effects of various factors, including the home environment, on children's social development are discussed. Furthermore, maternal feelings of alienation and the effect such feelings have on children's mental development are reviewed. Social development is shaped by the process of socialization. Socialization is "the process whereby children acquire the habits, values, goals, and knowledge that will enable them to function satisfactorily when they become adult members of society (Maccoby, 1980, p.V)." According to Maccoby (1980), the child's family is a major contributing factor. This review provides supporting evidence for the hypotheses that the home environment and mothers' feelings of alienation affect children's social development.

Children's social development was measured by the Iowa Social Competency Scales (I.S.C.S.) (Pease et. al., 1979). Factor analysis of the I.S.C.S questionnaire resulted in separate factor structures for mothers' and fathers' perceptions of their school-age children's social development. The I.S.C.S. six factors for mothers of school age children are Task Oriented, Leader, Physically Active, Affectionate with Parent,

Apprehensive, and Disruptive Behavior. Only the mothers data which was more complete, was used in the analysis. The five father factors are Capable, Leader, Active with Peers, Affectionate Toward Parent, and Defiant Behavior.

A 44-item observational/interview instrument developed by the NC-124 regional research team and based on the HOME (Bradley & Caldwell, 1976), was used as the measure of the quality of the children's home environment. This environmental assessment index has been reported to be predictive of later intellectual functioning (Poresky, 1984). Maternal feelings of alienation were assessed by the nine-item "Anomia" scale (Srole, 1956), which has also been linked to children's intellectual development (Poresky, 1984).

This thesis involves the analysis of data on 41 rural children between six and 11 year olds collected as part of the longitudinal North Central Regional Research project on children's mental and social development (NC-124, 1981). This data set includes a measure of social development, a measure of the quality of the child's home environment, a measure of maternal alienation, and other measures of family functioning. A longitudinal, correlational analysis was used to assess the degree of influence the home environment and maternal feelings of alienation have on children's social development.

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Development has been defined by Shaffer (1985) as "the process by which organisms grow and change over the course of their lives" (p. 6). In order to define social development, Cairns (1979) decided it was necessary to define each term independently. Cairns defines development as "the dynamic organization of behavior over time..." (p. 5). "Dynamic organization" refers to the process whereby there is continuous interaction taking place between experience and the processes of maturation and growth. Development is a fairly difficult term to define in any specific manner. The same is true when seeking a definition of social development. Social to Cairns refers to "all the effects that organisms produce on one another" (p. 5). Thus, human social development is the developmental organization of behavior as affected by other individuals.

Social skills and behaviors are learned through the process of socialization, and social development is often viewed as the result of socialization. Socialization is "the process whereby children acquire the habits, values, goals, and knowledge that will enable them to function satisfactorily when they become adult members of society" (Maccoby, 1980, p. v). Maccoby (1980) feels the child's family is a major contributing factor to socialization in the lives of children. Various authorities have focused on selected aspects of "social development." Attachment, aggression, locus of control, moral development, and



parental perceptions of social development are presented in this section.

#### ATTACHMENT

Attachment is created through the development of strong affectional ties which form bonds between a person and his/her closest companions (Bowlby, 1958, 1973). Children's attachment is shown in infancy and early childhood, according to Maccoby, "by the child's (1) seeking to be near the other person, (2) showing distress on separation from that person, (3) showing joy or relief on reunion, and (4) being oriented toward that person even when not in close proximity--listening for the person's voice, watching the person's movements, and directing actions toward that person (for example, calling or showing objects to that person)" (1980, p.53).

Children can be reliably classified according to the nature of their attachment. Maccoby (1980) reviews studies by Ainsworth, Bell, and Strayton (1971) and Sroufe and Waters (1977) to arrive at composite descriptions for three types of attached infants. These studies use the "Strange Situation" (Ainsworth et. al., 1969, 1971) as their primary method for assessing the quality of an infant's attachment. Type A, the avoidant infant, was usually not effected by the whereabouts of his mother. This infant is as easily comforted by a stranger as by the mother. Type B, the securely attached infant, is considerably effected by the mother's absence, as indicated by reduced play and obvious distress. This child goes to the mother immediately, upon her return, and is easily comforted by

the mother. Type C, the resistant child, desires to be picked up by the mother upon her return, however, when she does so the child simultaneously resists contact and shows anger. These typologies clearly show that there are differences in a child's attachment to his/her mother. Some possible reasons for these differences will be discussed later.

Maccoby (1980) summarizes the research on the development of attachment:

"while newborn infants are initially highly attracted by certain features that adult human beings possess and are soothed by certain things they do, the infant does not immediately become attached to specific adults. By about the fourth month, infants clearly show that they recognize and prefer their mothers and perhaps one or two other persons as well. By the age of seven months, they usually protest separation from specific attachment figures and show wariness toward strangers" (pp. 78-79).

In a group of Scottish infants, Schaffer and Emerson (1964) discovered that by 18 months of age very few of the infants were attached to only one person. In some cases, the infants were attached to five or more. Therefore, it appears that initial attachments are formed around the fourth month and by about the age of 18 months most children have developed close ties with more than one person.

There is continuity in early social development. More securely attached infants are more curious at age two and more sociable with peers than infants who were not securely attached (Matas, Arend, & Sroufe, 1978; Pastor, 1981). Waters, Wippman, and Sroufe (1979) found that infants who were securely attached to their mothers at 15 months of age, at three and half years became social leaders in the nursery school setting: they often

initiated play activities, were generally sensitive to the needs and feelings of other children, and were very popular with their peers. On the other hand, less securely attached infants were more withdrawn, hesitant to join in other children's play activities, and were much less forceful in pursuing their goals. Even at four to five years of age securely attached children were still more responsive to peers and were much less dependent on adults, when compared to classmates who were less securely attached. This consistently is subject to proximate environmental influences.

Insecure infants may become more securely attached if the lives of their close companions (e.g., mother) become less stressful (Vaughn, Egeland, Sroufe, & Waters, 1979). As highly stressed and emotionally unresponsive mothers begin to receive emotional support and assistance from a close friend, a spouse, or a grandparent, this often leads to the securing of closer attachments with her child (Crockenberg, 1981; Egeland & Sroufe, 1981). Furthermore, it is possible for securely attached infants to become less securely attached. Thompson et. al. (1982) found that when the mother returns to work or if the child receives regular caregiving from someone else, secure attachments may develop into insecure attachments. They are quick to point out, however, that not all mothers who work or who are otherwise involved in activities outside the home will undermine their secure attachment with their child. Their results showed that as many insecure infants develop secure attachments as do securely attached infants develop insecure attachments. Attachment, therefore, is not irreversible, but

often varies according to contemporary situations.

#### AGGRESSION

Aggression is another aspect of social development which has been investigated fairly extensively. Researchers have distinguished between two types of aggression, instrumental and hostile. Maccoby (1980) states that "in instrumental aggression, distress is produced in another person in order to obtain something the aggressor wants, while in hostile aggression, hurting becomes an end in itself."

In a longitudinal study, Bronson (1975) observed groups of three or four children playing in a room well stocked with toys. Bronson found that between the ages of one and two, children increasingly have more intense emotional reactions to their toys being taken away. He further observed that when these struggles over toys occur, the children seldom look at each other. Maccoby states that during this period "we do not see an increase in what may legitimately be called aggression. The children are not trying to force another child to withdraw by hurting or frightening the other child; they are merely trying to remove an obstruction" (1980, p. 119). Young children exhibit aggression under circumstances in which they perceive a threat that something they value will be taken from them. Therefore, implying that their reaction is in response to the object and not the person.

Florence Goodenough (1931) documented the gradual shift a child makes from this undirected anger to true aggression (i.e., anger focused at another person). She asked 45 mothers to keep

diaries of the angry outbursts of their children, recording its cause and its consequences. Her results showed that younger children up until age three, had angry outbursts which were not directed toward a person. After three, however, this behavior diminished and outbursts occurred in retaliation to perceived injury from other people.

Hartup (1974) in his study of six classes of children in nursery school and first and second grade noticed that a decline in aggressive incidents was associated with decreasing rates of instrumental aggression. He further noticed that hostile aggression did not change, only the manner in which it was exhibited changed. Younger children, aged two or three, kicked or hit their adversary, while the older children grew less physical and used teasing, tattling and name calling as their means for retaliation. The older children seem to have adopted a more "sophisticated" way of showing their anger.

Parents may promote aggression through their response to difficulties their children are having with their peers. In a study of 700 families in Nottingham, England, John and Elizabeth Newson (1968) found 61 percent of the mothers had told their children (four years old) to hit back when attacked by another child. The children were encouraged to be physically aggressive.

Aggression is not only promoted by parents towards peers, but also within the home. Shaffer, in his review of the literature, maintains that "cold and rejecting parents who apply physical punishment in an erratic fashion and often permit their child to express aggressive impulses are likely to raise

hostile, aggressive children" (1985, p. 498). Another possibility is that parents inadvertently model aggressive behavior to their children. The act of physically punishing the child may lead the child to conclude that physical aggression is one method of communicating their frustration to others. It is further believed by some that permissive parents who ignore aggressive outbursts until they escalate to the point where the parent feels he/she has to step in and spank the child are reinforcing, through modeling, the very behavior they are trying to suppress (Eron, 1982; Sears et al., 1957). It is plausible then to conclude that a significant contributing factor to the child's development is his/her parents.

#### LOCUS OF CONTROL

Locus of control is generally divided into two polar subtypes; internal and external. Internal locus of control refers to the feelings that outcomes are a result of his/her own actions. People classified as having an external locus of control, on the other hand, feel helpless, believe that they have no control over their lives and that what happens to them is a result of luck or fate (Maccoby, 1980). In a study of six, nine, and twelve month old infants, Gunnar (1980) observed that 12 month old infants begin to understand that they have some control over their environment. Findley and Cooper (1983), in their review of the literature, found that children with an internal locus of control earn higher grades and typically outperform children with an external locus of control on standardized tests of academic achievement.

According to the findings of Findley and Cooper (1983) and

Gunnar (1980) then, it seems important to discover what factors influence the development of internal and external locus of control. Children, who have parents who encourage self reliance while setting clear performance goals for their children, are likely to have high internal locus of control scores (Buriel, 1981; MacDonald, 1971). On the other hand, children, with parents who give them little freedom and who set few performance standards, have more external locus of control scores (Davis & Phares, 1969; Wichern & Nowicki, 1976). How the parents react to their child's successes and failures has also been shown to influence his/her locus of control. Parents, who frequently reward success and do not criticize an occasional failure, have children who take credit for their accomplishments and have high internal locus of control scores (Katzovsky, Crandall, & Good, 1967). In contrast, parents, who punish failures and are neutral toward successes, have children who are high on external locus of control (Katzovsky et. al., 1967).

Loeb (1975) found that parents who do not direct their boys to do something (in this instance build a tower), but suggest that they do certain things have boys who scored higher on external locus of control. Bee (1967) found similar results using a different procedure which looked at children who were easily distracted while working on something and those who were not. While being distracted, the children were asked to do a series of tasks with their parents present. The style of helping the parent used was recorded. She found that distractable children had parents who helped through the use of directives. The children who could ignore distractions,

however, had parents who gave suggestions, but not direct solutions. A connection between these two studies, although it has not been proven, may be inferred. The children who were not easily distracted and who showed a high motivation to finish the task were most likely those who also possess a high internal locus of control (Maccoby, 1980, p. 288). This illustrates the possible power differing parenting styles may have on children. Parents who provide direction (i.e., suggestions or guidance) for their children, while concurrently providing them with the freedom to make certain choices, rear children who have feelings of more internal control.

#### MORAL DEVELOPMENT

The study of moral understanding has been extensively studied by Kohlberg (1969, 1976). In his studies he presented young children, adolescents, and younger adults with moral dilemmas. These dilemmas portrayed a conflict between several possible claims for justice. After analyzing the statements given by his subjects, he derived three levels of morality. They are summarized by Maccoby (1980, pp. 305-306):

"Level 1: Preconventional Morality. (The level of most children under nine, many adolescents, and many adult criminal offenders.) Social rules and expectations are felt as something external to the self. The individual conforms to social rules on the basis of fear of punishment or expectation of personal reward. This level can be divided into two stages:

Stage 1: Punishment and obedience orientation. Obedience is considered important for its own sake, the individual recognizes the superior power of authority and conforms to avoid punishment.

Stage 2: Self-interested exchanges. The individual obeys rules in order to get the best deal possible in a world where other people also



have their own interests. A person is good or kind so that others will do things that the self needs or wants them to do.

Level 2: Conventional Morality. (The level of most adolescents and adults.) The individual now understands, accepts, and upholds social rules and expectations, especially those that emanate from authorities. The rules are internalized - felt to be right. This level has two stages:

Stage 3: Maintaining good interpersonal relationships. The individual wants to be seen by others as a good, well-intentioned person and also wants to feel this way about her- or himself. Being good requires the individual to live up to the expectations of important others, especially parents and friends, and to maintain mutual trust, loyalty, respect, and gratitude. A hallmark of this stage is the experience of shame when seen in an unflattering light by significant others.

Stage 4: Maintaining the social system, including authority relationships. The individual agrees to a set of social duties and obligations which are seen as justified because they keep the social system functioning (e.g., "If everyone did that, everything would fall apart"). This stage has sometimes been referred to as law and order morality. Individuals at this stage believe in upholding the law, except in extreme cases where it conflicts with other clear social duties. They believe that authorities have the right to punish infractions. They feel people have a duty to live up to accepted obligations and they feel guilt over failure to do so.

Level 3: Postconventional Morality. (A level reached by only a minority of adults, and then seldom until the age of twenty or later.) Society's rules are accepted, but these individuals develop and internalize their own formulation of the basic moral principles that underlie the rules. When the person's own principles conflict with social rules, the individual is guided by the principles. The two stages are:

Stage 5: Morality of social contact and individual rights. Social rules are seen as relative and capable of being changed by mutual agreement among those affected. To be acceptable, rules must be arrived at by democratic procedures and must be impartial. Individuals conform to obligations for the sake of maintaining their own self-respect and the respect of a rational community of equals - in the interests of 'the greatest good for the greatest number.'

Stage 6: Morality of universal ethical principles. As a rational person, the individual recognizes the validity of universal ethical principles - for example, the right to life and the right to as much liberty as social functioning will allow. The individual has a sense of personal commitment to these principles. Compliance is based on the individual's personal conscience, not on external pressure or even social contract. An individual at this stage may choose a prison sentence rather than violate personal beliefs."

Kohlberg's work is a considerable contribution in this area. There are, however, criticisms which have been made about his work. Maccoby considers two of them:

"First, the situations in Kohlberg's story dilemmas were not familiar to most of his subjects, and his critics suggest that children might have employed more mature reasoning if they had been asked about issues relevant to their day-to-day experiences. A second question concerns whether a given individual functions at the same level of moral reasoning regardless of the kind of moral issue that is involved or whether moral thought on different issues may develop at different rates (1980, p. 307)."

Although these criticisms exist, Kohlberg's work remains as one of the landmark examinations of moral development.

The literature on moral development has cited various factors which are believed to influence moral development. The ability to take the perspective of another is one of these factors. The perspective-taking ability of the child is associated with the ability to make mature moral judgements (Selman, 1971, 1976). Perspective-taking entails seeing, understanding, and/or experiencing things as others see, understand, or experience them. Selman (1971) studied a group of children who were the same age and approximately the same intelligence level. Children with higher levels of perspective-taking are more likely, but not certain, to have reached higher

levels moral reasoning as indicated by their responses to Kohlberg's dilemmas. Furthermore, children who achieved higher levels of perspective-taking were not necessarily moral. Because they were capable of taking the perspective of others did not imply they made moral judgements or behaved in morally acceptable ways. Children at the postconventional level of morality, however, were almost all skillful perspective-takers. This implies that if children have achieved a high level of morality, they are likely to possess skillful perspective-taking abilities, while those who are skillful perspective-takers do not all possess high levels of morality. Bearison and Cassel (1975) looked at how parent's discussions with their children over disciplining issues were related to the perspective-taking ability of the child. Their results indicated that those mothers, who call attention to the perspectives of other people, have children who learn to be sensitive to these perspectives.

Taking the perspective of others, behaving in ways which are morally acceptable, are aspects of morality. Altruism is one other aspect of morality.

#### ALTRUISM

It seems that before children receive any moral training they are exhibiting behaviors which resemble the altruistic behaviors of adults. Infants at 12 months have been observed "sharing" interesting experiences with other infants by pointing and will also occasionally share their toys (Hay, 1979; Leung & Rheingold, 1981). By 18 months, Rheingold (1982) has observed that children are trying to help with household chores. At 21 months, some children even demonstrated sympathy or compassion

for their companions (Zahn-Waxler, Radke-Yarrow, & King, 1979). Underwood and Moore (1982) believe that sharing, helping, and other altruistic behaviors become more common as children get older.

Zahn-Waxler, Radke-Yarrow, and King (1979) studied young children's altruism by using the reports mothers gave of daily incidents that occurred with their children. They discovered that in about a third of the child-caused distress incidents the children made efforts at reparation, trying to comfort their victim, offering a toy, giving help, or finding someone else to help. They also found that the manner in which the mother reprimanded the child was related to the child's rate of altruism. The results showed that the use of affective explanations (e.g., moralizing) was associated with high levels of altruistic behavior. Moralizing and statements of principle were the most influential. Low rates of child altruism were associated with unexplained parental verbal prohibitions and physical punishment.

Reinforcement is another method for promoting altruism. Fischer (1963) found that material rewards fostered more sharing between children than social reinforcement (verbal approval). Verbal reinforcement, however, has proved to be effective when it is delivered by a warm and charitable individual the children admire (Midlarsky, Bryan, & Brickman, 1973; Yarrow, Scott, Waxler, 1973). Modeling altruistic behaviors has also been shown to lead to more altruistic behavior in children, especially if the models have a warm and friendly relationship with these children (Rushton, 1980; Yarrow et al., 1973).

Exposure to those altruistic models can have effects lasting from 10 days (Midlarsky & Bryan, 1972) to two to four months (Rice & Crusec, 1975; Rushton, 1975). Modeling has shown to be ineffective, however, when the model does not practice what he preaches (Bryan & Schwartz, 1971; Bryan & Walbek, 1970). Children who saw a model refuse to give something when he was preaching charity exhibited low levels of altruism, while those children who observed a charitable model who preached charity exhibited more altruistic behaviors.

The ability to take the perspective of others, to behave in morally acceptable ways, to resist temptation and to exhibit qualities of altruism, have all been cited as various manifestations of morality. From the results of studies in these different areas, certain influences over their development in a child's life have been associated with their development. Of these influences, modeling was consistently mentioned as being an effective method for developing these qualities in children. This provides further support for the argument that the environment strongly affects a child's development.

this brief review of the literature summarizes many of the key aspects of a child's social development. It clearly does not encompass all possible aspects of social development. Furthermore, the review does not go into detailed descriptions and analysis of the research cited. This summary was written, using the current literature, to provide a general overview of areas believed to be central to the social development of children and parental perceptions of social development.

This review has indicated that many of the social

characteristics exhibited by children are strongly influenced by their environment. Secure attachments can change to insecure attachments if the child's environment changes. Aggression is influenced by parents' actions and the role model they provide for their children. Role models also affect the child's level of moral reasoning along with the manner in which punishment is administered and the ability of the child to take the perspective of others as developed through the parents' example and verbal reinforcement.

#### ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECTS ON SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

There is an increasing amount of literature reviewing the effects of the general environment on a child's development. The environment studied, can be as specific as the style of punishment utilized by the parents or as general as the noise in children's surroundings. With the advances in technology and the increase in population density, the environment is becoming increasingly more crowded and noisy. This technological explosion has also infiltrated our homes and is slowly consuming any extra space within them. Furthermore, parents (especially mothers) are finding more of their time wrapped up in activities outside the home. On the other hand, these advances have brought with them new and more exciting things for children to play with. For instance, there are toys which help children to learn to spell by rewarding them with an electronic "thank you" or with electronic music. This section will review the literature which considers how these various environmental and home factors influence a child's development.

As mentioned in the preceding paragraph, punishment is a part of the child's environment. Punishment is one method of controlling a child's deviant behavior. In a review of the literature by Johnston (1972), he concluded that children frequently will not repeat an action they have been punished for even if a controlling person is not present. Maccoby (1980) proposes that one reason for this consistent behavior pattern is that children can never be sure of when they will be caught.

Some researchers have found that the timing of punishment is important (Aronfreed & Reber, 1965; Walters, Parke, & Cane, 1965; Parke, 1977). They found that if punishment was delivered before the child committed the prohibited act, rather than afterwards, it was much more effective. Aronfreed (1968) found that the longer punishment is delayed after the prohibited act has been committed, the less likely it is to prevent the reoccurrence of the prohibited act later. When children were given a rationale for receiving the punishment, its timing had less effect on the children's behavior (LaVoie, 1970; Verna, 1977).

Punishment is associated with undesirable social development. Parents who frequently punish their children have children "who have difficulty in resisting temptation in a variety of situations. Threats and other forms of power-assertive parental discipline ('you do it because I tell you to, or else...') also weaken inner controls or hamper their growth" (Maccoby, 1980, p. 334). Maccoby points out that a review of the literature by Hoffman (1970) has shown that power-assertive methods of discipline are also associated with delinquency.

Social development may be facilitated through appropriate modeling. Children who are exposed to a model who does not yield to temptation are more likely to resist temptation themselves (Ross, 1971; Rosenkoetter, 1973; Toner, Parke, & Yussen, 1978; Crusec, et al., 1979; Wolf & Cheyne, 1972). Crusec et al. (1979) found that a rational given for resisting the temptation was even more effective. Furthermore, rule-following models who provide a rational at the same level as the child's level of moral reasoning are more influential than those who give one above the child's level (Toner & Potts, 1981). These effects have been shown to still be in effect a week later (Toner et al., 1978) and as long as a month or two (Wolf & Cheyne, 1972).

On the other hand, self-indulgent models can have an adverse effect on children. A model who breaks the rules, greatly increases the likelihood that the child will not resist the temptation presented to him (Stein, 1967; Rosenkoetter, 1973; Walters & Parke, 1964). From these results it becomes clear that the people who serve as models for children can either help them to resist temptation or serve as a bad influence, making it easier for them to participate in inappropriate conduct.

There are a growing number of studies examining the relation the home environment has on the child's development. An early study by Majorie Honzik (1967) tested the intelligence of 21 month old infants, observed their home environment and interviewed their parents. Longitudinal testing was continued on each subject until they reached the age of 30. Increases in IQ were associated with evidences of parental ability, maternal concern, energy, worrisomeness, and the concern of both parents



with achievement. There was a differential effect for sons and daughters. Sons' IQ scores were higher with a close mother and son relationship and correlated with his fathers' occupational success and satisfaction. On the other hand, daughter's IQ scores were associated with father's friendliness to daughter and parental compatibility.

The more recent studies in this area have been conducted by Caldwell and her associates using the Home Observation for Measurement of the Environment (HOME) developed for young children (e.g., Bradley, Caldwell, & Elardo, 1979; Elardo, Bradley, & Caldwell, 1975, 1977; Freund & Elardo, 1978; Henderson, 1981). The HOME consists of six subscales assessing (a) the emotional and verbal responsiveness of the mother; (b) avoidance of restriction and punishment; (c) organization of the physical and temporal environment; (d) provision of (age) appropriate play materials; (e) maternal involvement with the child; and (f) opportunities for variety in daily stimulation (Elardo, et. al., 1975).

In the Elardo et. al., (1975) study, they found scores on the HOME at six, 12, and 24-months were significantly correlated to the Stanford Binet scores at three years. The subscale dealing with the organization of the physical and temporal environment at six months was most strongly related to mental test performance at 36 months. Bradley & Caldwell (1976a) found that decreases in IQ between six months and three years were associated with the parents' failure to adequately organize the environment. The two specific HOME subscales associated with these decreases were the Maternal Involvement with Child and

Provision of Appropriate Play Materials. Provision of Appropriate Play Materials and Maternal Involvement with Child, however, show the strongest correlations beginning at 12-months. In a follow up of their 1975 study, Bradley and Caldwell (1976b) found that when the children were 54-months old, significant correlations still remained between the six and 24-month HOME scores and 54-month Stanford Binet scores.

Two of the many subsequent studies conducted by these researchers are of particular interest here. Bradley and Caldwell (1980) discovered that for girls, Maternal Responsivity, Maternal Involvement, and Play Materials at age 1 are sufficient conditions for the development of IQ. On the other hand, for boys, "the combination of 6-month Play Materials, 12-month Play Materials, and 12-month Maternal Involvement appears to be both a necessary and sufficient condition for boys' development" (Bradley & Caldwell, 1980). Furthermore, they found that neither language competence nor goal directedness at age 1 significantly predicts intellectual development any better than the HOME scores alone. A study by Poresky and Henderson (1982) supports the findings of Bradley and Caldwell. They found both the Provision of Appropriate Play Materials and Maternal Involvement with the Child HOME subscales to be strongly related to both the infants mental and motor development. In Bradley & Caldwell's (1984) most recent study, the subscale "play materials" maintained the strongest correlation with first-grade SRA Achievement Test scores. These studies illustrate the long term value of home assessments as predictors of intellectual functioning.

In studies conducted by other researchers, HOME scores have been associated with the improved development of underdeveloped infants. Siegel (1981) found infants who were at risk, but who were developing normally at two years came from families with significantly higher scores on the HOME scales. More specifically, Zeskind and Ramey (1981) discovered that parents of black low SES infants who were underweight at birth, due to fetal malnutrition, obtained low ratings on the Maternal Involvement subscale. These infants were still, at three years of age, withdrawn and less responsive than a control group of infants. Belsky et. al. (1980) found that maternal stimulation (e.g., pointing, highlighting) and infant exploratory competence were positively associated. These results, when combined with Zeskind's, broaden those found by Caldwell and her associates. Zeskind's results showed that social factors, such as withdrawal and responsiveness, were associated with maternal involvement. Furthermore, the results from Belsky's study are in agreement with Poresky and Henderson's in finding a relationship between maternal involvement and motor development.

In summary, the literature on children's environment indicates that parental behavior can be helpful in teaching children to act in socially acceptable ways. The studies specifically looking at the children's home environment indicate both the parents and the home environment play an important role in fostering the mental, motor, and social development of children. Specifically, the organizing of the spatial and temporal environment in the first year and maternal involvement and appropriation of appropriate play materials in the immediate

years to follow.

## ALIENATION

Alienation is one other factor which could possibly affect children's social development. For example, a mother who feels alienated from her surroundings, could become overinvolved with her children and impair their development. Alienation as a concept can be traced back to Durkheim's conception of "anomy" in 1897 as a sociological phenomenon related to suicide (1951). Since that time, alienation has been interpreted in many ways. Alienation has been characterized by powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, social isolation, and self-estrangement (Bell, 1957; Nettler, 1957; Seeman, 1959; Jarret & Haller, 1964; keimanis, 1965; Lee, 1974; Maddi, 1979).

Seeman (1959) summarizes five basic ways in which the concept of alienation has been used. They are:

- 1) Powerlessness-"the expectancy or probability held by the individual that his own behavior cannot determine the occurrence of the outcomes, or reinforcements, he seeks" (p. 784).
- 2) Meaninglessness-"the individual is unclear as to what he ought to believe when the individual's minimal standards for clarity in decision-making are not met. Also a low expectancy that satisfactory predictions about future outcomes of behavior can be made. ...(this) meaning refers essentially to the sensed ability to predict behavioral outcomes" (p. 786).
- 3) Normlessness-"a high expectancy that socially unapproved behaviors are required to achieve given goals" (p. 788).
- 4) Isolation-are those who, like the intellectual, assign low reward value to goals or beliefs that are typically

highly valued in the given society" (pp. 788-799)

5) Self Estrangement-"the degree of dependence of the given behavior upon anticipated future rewards, that is, upon rewards that lie outside the activity itself" (p. 790).

More recently Maddi et. al. (1979) developed a test of alienation and identified four types of alienation which they derived from the literature. In summary they are:

- 1) "Powerlessness-despair of any influence over social or personal affairs.
- 2) Adventerous-inability to experience vitality unless one is engaged in extreme and dangerous activities.
- 3) Nihilism-insistent attempt to discredit anything that appears to have meaning.
- 4) Vegetativeness-inability to believe in the truth, importance, or interest of anything one is doing." (p. 73)

They go on to say that there are five contexts in which alienation may take place: work, social institutions, family, other persons, and self. Furthermore, Meier and Bell (1959) use the term anomia where the concept is person-oriented, as opposed to system-oriented. Nettler (1957) utilizes alienation in the sense that it describes a state of isolation or estrangement between the self and society.

One variable which has been consistently inversely associated with anomie is socioeconomic status (SES). Srole (1956) and Bell (1957) found significant inverse correlations between men's SES and their anomie on the five-item Srole measure. These findings have since been confirmed by numerous other studies (e.g., Meier and Bell, 1959; Simpson and Miller,

1963; Leornard, 1977; Maddi et. al., 1979). Leornard (1977) found that perceived financial status was the best predictor of scores on the Srole anomia scales. Adverse financial changes have been associated with increased anomie (Boor, 1982). Boor, in his lingitudinal (1973 to 1980) study utilizing a representative sample from the United States population, found the increase in anomie to be most marked between 1977 and 1980. He suggests his results indicate that changes in the economic conditions of a society play an important role in the development of anomie.

The study of anomie in the area of the family has focused on the effect marriage has on anomie. Lee (1974) hypothesized that marital satisfaction should be inversely related to personal anomie. His results supported that hypothesis. In a more recent study, however, Ryan's (1981) replication of Lee's work did not find either marital status or marital happiness to explain any variance in anomia beyond that explained by education level (an element of SES). Thus suggesting that SES may have been a mediating factor in Lee's results.

Lovell-Troy (1983) studied housewives and employed wives and the effects these roles have on anomie. Neither housewives or employed wives differed on anomie when SES was controlled for. He did find, however, that for both housewives and employed wives the prestige of their own jobs, or their previous jobs in the case of housewives, is the most significant predictor of anomia. These results suggest that married women are more affected by their own class characteristics than by those of their husband. When class factors were controlled, the size of

the community and the number of school-aged children were two distinct sources of anomie which effected housewives and not employed wives. The stronger of these sources was the effect of school-age children. Specifically, the greater number of preteenagers (6- to 12-year-olds) the greater the housewives' anomie; the greater the number of teenagers, the less the housewives' anomie. These results may imply that once the children enter school it becomes more difficult for mom to "pursue the ends of good parenting when the control of one's children is being transferred to schools and peer groups" (Lovell-Troy, 1983, p. 308).

In a longitudinal study of rural women, Poresky and Atilano (1982) found maternal alienation to be most strongly affected by SES, community involvement and maternal education. They did not find, however, any association of anomie with family involvement. They interpreted these results as reflecting support for the "interpretation of anomia as a result of sociological community/societal factors to a greater extent than family factors for rural women..." (Poresky & Atilano, 1982, p. 187). In another study, Poresky (1984) utilized the same data set, to study the relationship of maternal alienation and intellectual development. He found that the mothers' feelings of alienation were negatively associated with the children's later intellectual functioning.

This review of the literature has focused on various aspects of children's social development. It began with a general overview of social development and environmental factors which influenced that development. Two sections followed which

considered how the home environment and maternal feelings of alienation effect children's development. In both instances very few, if any, connections have been made between children's social development and these factors. Therefore, it is the purpose of this thesis to consider how the home environment and maternal alienation effect children's social development. The hypotheses stated in their null form are:

- 1) Measures of the home environment (i.e., environmental assessment index, parent-child interactions, demographic factors) are not associated with measures of children's social development.

- 2) Maternal alienation is not associated with measures of children's social development.



## CHAPTER III

### METHODS

#### Sample

Families were selected on a random geographical basis if they had been living on a farm for at least ten years, the family derived income directly from the farm in the form of crop or animal sales, rental of land, etc., and the nuclear family was intact. The mother and father must have been the natural, adoptive, or step-parents. Furthermore, the children must have been reared by their parents continuously since one year of age. The child must have had no obvious handicaps, and only one target child came from each residence. Children were three, six, or nine years old at the beginning of the study. Data for the six and nine year old children and their families was used for this study.

Forty-one families residing in Kansas participated in this study. The children's initial ages ranged from 72 to 80 months and 108 to 114 months with a mean age of 92 months. Of these 41 children, 19 were male and 22 were female. For the parents, the mean age of the fathers was 37, ranging from 27 to 54, and the mean age of the mothers was 35, ranging from 26 to 45. Fathers' education ranged from 12 to 22 years with a mean of 14 years, while mothers' education ranged from 9 to 17 years with a mean of 13 years. Eleven mothers considered themselves part-time mothers and 30 considered themselves full-time mothers. The mean approximate net family income was \$10,000 to \$14,999, and the mean approximate gross family income was \$25,000 to \$49,999. The average farm size was 367 acres. For further information on

the sampling procedure, please refer to the Life Span Analysis of the Mental and Social Development of Rural Children Technical Manual (1981), hereafter referred to as NC-124, 1981.

### Instruments

The Iowa Social Competency Scale (I.S.C.S.) for school-age children was used to measure the social competencies of elementary (6- to 12-year-old) children. It is "designed to measure the typical behavior of (normal) children as they function within the family environment" (NC-124, 1981, p. 132). The scale is divided into mother and father forms. The ratings are based on the mothers' and fathers' independent observations of their child's overt behavior. Ratings are made on a scale from one to 99, with one representing "almost never" and 99 representing "almost always" with reference to the described item. See the appendix for all instruments used in this study.

The initial version of the school-age form was developed utilizing the Devereaux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale (Spivack & Swift, 1967), subsequent work of Jacobowitz (1974), and parental and professional suggestions. Items taken from the Devereaux Scales were modified to better describe normal children within a family setting. The school-age form passed through three revisions. The 50 item form was used in the first year of the study. This form was then subjected to a second regional factor analysis, resulting in the forms for mothers and fathers used in the third year, which consist of six factors containing 26 items for mothers and five factors containing 32 items for fathers. The mother form was selected for this analysis, because more mothers completed the I.S.C.S. than

fathers. A summary of the mother factors follows:

School-Age I.S.C.S. (Mother Form)

Task Oriented

These children are persistent in their efforts to accomplish a task. They are well oriented to their world and are able to communicate or share their activities, thoughts and ideas with others.

Disruptive

Children here have little regard for the rights of others. They must be in the "limelight" of any situation and are self-centered.

Leader

Leaders are those children who initiate activities that others follow and have ideas and suggestions which both children and adults are willing to accept.

Physically Active

These children engage in a variety of motor activities in their play and use their large muscles.

Affectionate Toward Parent

These children enjoy being with their parents and are able to show their affection toward their parents. They enjoy engaging in activities together and are companionable.

Apprehensive

These children are anxious about correct behavior, and display behavior indicating they are disturbed by having to be corrected by their parents.

Reports on the validity or reliability of the I.S.C.S. have not been located, other than the initial factor analyses of the

regional data on children. A similar scale developed concurrently with the school-age form, is a preschool-age form, which has shown internal reliability (Pease, Clark, & Crase, 1981) and both convergent and discriminant validity (Wirth & Pease, 1983). Reliability estimates were computed utilizing the Spearman-Brown formula for total variance (range = .57 to .86, mothers; range = .47 to .87, fathers) and for unique variance (range = .52 to .85 mothers; range = .47 to .87, fathers).

The child's home, including parental, social and physical factors, was assessed through administering the Kansas Home Interview Scales (KHIS). The data was collected through an interview with the mother and incidental observations. The KHIS consists of five sections: demographic data, parental involvement and maternal alienation, satisfaction scales, child care experiences and opportunities, and the environmental assessment index.

The first section, Demographic Data, includes the child's age, educational level and the parents' age, educational attainment and occupation(s). Since farm families have widely differing gross and net incomes, the education and income data were combined with the income estimates to provide net and gross indices of SES "based upon approximately equal variance from parental education and family income" (NC-124, 1981, p. 13). Furthermore, family composition, the target child's ordinal position, and farm size data were also collected.

Direct questions pertaining to how satisfied the mother was with her occupation, parenting, family life, and net income were asked. She was also asked how satisfied she thought her husband

was. The responses to these questions constituted the mothers' and fathers' Satisfaction Index.

The nine-item version of Srole's Anomia scale (Robinson and Shaver, 1973) was administered to the mothers to assess their feelings of alienation. Poresky and Atilano (1981) found the three year test-retest correlations were .56. The nine-item Robinson and Shaver form (1973) showed greater stability than the original Srole (1956) five-item form. The test-retest correlations over a two year period were .56 and .46 (both  $p < .001$ ) respectively. show the nine-item scale is more reliable and stable than the original Srole (1956) Anomie instrument.

The Parent-child Interaction index was utilized to measure the amount of parent-child activities. Specifically, questions were asked pertaining to how many activities the parents did with their children, including visiting relatives, attending sporting events, going to the movies, and participating in other parent-child activities during the previous 12 months.

The Environmental Assessment Index was used to assess the quality of the home environment. This index consisted of 44-items which were rated "yes" or "no" based on the answers given by parents to interview questions or on the observations of the interviewer. "Yes" was coded 2 and "no" was coded 1 for the analysis. This index was derived from the Inventory of Home Stimulation (Caldwell, 1967) and the Home Observation for Measurement of the Environment (Elardo, Bradley, and Caldwell, 1975). These instruments were adapted by the NC-124 Regional Research scientists for the older age range of the children in this study and for the rural farm settings.

### Procedure

The complete set of instruments were administered during each of the three annual home visits, scheduled shortly after the target child's birthday. Generally the I.S.C.S. was sent to the parents and collected during the home visit. The Kansas Home Interview Scales, including the demographic, parental involvement, satisfaction scales, Anomia, and environmental assessment index, were administered during the one to two hour home visit.

TABLE 1

ANTECEDENT VARIABLES  
(Means and Standard Deviations)

VARIABLES	MEAN	SD	VARIABLES	MEAN	SD
FIRST YEAR			THIRD YEAR		
ANOMIA	10.78	1.68	ANOMIA	10.54	1.45
ENVIRONMENTAL ASSESSMENT INDEX	82.73	3.71	ENVIRONMENTAL ASSESSMENT INDEX	84.78	3.08
PARENT-CHILD INTERACTION	173.44	132.52	PARENT-CHILD INTERACTION	162.24	156.22
NET SES	48.41	8.94	NET SES	47.95	7.92
GROSS SES	44.87	7.12	GROSS SES	42.90	7.05
FAMILY SIZE	5.71	2.04	FAMILY SIZE	5.85	1.97
FATHERS' EDUCATION	13.98	2.66	FATHERS' EDUCATION	14.02	2.54
MOTHERS' EDUCATION	13.27	1.88	MOTHERS' EDUCATION	13.22	1.88

Note: N varies from 40 to 41

TABLE 2

IOWA SOCIAL COMPETENCY SCALES  
(Means and Standard Deviations)

I.S.C.S.	MEAN	SD
THIRD YEAR		
TASK ORIENTED	62.09	10.86
DISRUPTIVE	42.92	10.26
LEADER	54.26	12.77
PHYSICALLY ACTIVE	53.57	13.87
AFFECTIONATE TOWARD PARENT	70.86	13.94
APPREHENSIVE	53.90	13.88

N=27



Due to the utilization of a different form on the first year I.S.C.S. scales, they were not included in this analysis. The longitudinal correlation coefficients, for the first year antecedent variables and the third year I.S.C.S. scales are reported in Table 3. To study the effect maternal feelings of alienation have on children's social development two years later, correlation coefficients were computed between the responses of mothers on the Anomia scale and the I.S.C.S. scale scores. There were no significant correlations between anomia and any of the I.S.C.S. scales. Mothers who did show less inclination towards feelings of alienation, however, described their children as being task oriented ( $r = -.32$ ,  $p = .06$ ).

Significant correlation coefficients between the initial home environment and the I.S.C.S. scales were attained between the home environment and the I.S.C.S. scales two years later. Children with higher environmental assessment index (E.A.I.) scores tended to be higher on the I.S.C.S. Leader scale ( $r = .49$ ,  $p = .005$ ) two years later than children with lower initial E.A.I. scores. Two other I.S.C.S. scales, Affectionate Toward Parent and Apprehensive were marginally associated with the E.A.I. score two years earlier. E.A.I. was marginally correlated with Affectionate Toward Parent ( $r = .29$ ,  $p = .07$ ) and negatively with Apprehension ( $r = -.27$ ,  $p = .09$ ).

The only significant correlation between parent-child interaction and the I.S.C.S. scales, was found with the Leader scale ( $r = .36$ ,  $p = .04$ ). This result implies that parents who frequently interact with their children reported that their children were more like Leaders two years earlier.

Both family net income and family gross income were significantly and negatively correlated with the Physically Active scale ( $r = -.38$ ,  $p = .03$  and  $r = -.49$ ,  $p = .01$  respectively), suggesting that a low family income is associated with higher activity levels of the child. Mothers' education was also significantly and negatively correlated with the Physically Active scale ( $r = -.40$ ,  $p = .02$ ), indicating that less educated mothers reported having children who were more physically active later.

Concurrent third year correlation coefficients for the antecedent independent variables and the I.S.C.S. scales scores are given in Table 4. A relationship between concurrent maternal feelings of alienation and the I.S.C.S. scales was only found for the Physically Active scale ( $r = .40$ ,  $p = .02$ ). This relationship was positive and implies that mothers who feel more alienated from the world describe their children as being more physically active.

The third year environmental assessment index was correlated with one third year I.S.C.S. scale. The degree of children's apprehension was significantly and negatively correlated with the E.A.I. ( $r = -.35$ ,  $p = .04$ ). The Leader scale was marginally correlated with the E.A.I. ( $r = .31$ ,  $p = .06$ ).

Concurrent third year parent-child interaction score were not significantly correlated with the I.S.C.S. scale scores.

Family size was negatively correlated with the Leader scale ( $r = -.36$ ,  $p = .04$ ). This correlation indicates that as the size of the family increases, ratings of the children's leadership

TABLE 3

LONGITUDINAL CORRELATIONS OF FIRST YEAR ANTECEDENT VARIABLES  
WITH THIRD YEAR I.S.C.S. SCALES

	THIRD YEAR SOCIAL COMPETENCY SCALES					
	TASK ORIENTED	DIS- RUPTIVE	LEADER	PHYSICALLY ACTIVE	AFFECT TOWARD PARENT	APPRE- HENSIVE
FIRST YEAR						
ANOMIA	-.3159	-.2080	-.1097	.1708	-.2417	.0676
ENVIRONMENTAL ASSESSMENT INDEX	.1361	-.1622	.4854**	.0133	.2935	-.2748
PARENT-CHILD INTERACTION	-.2171	.1447	.3566*	-.1871	-.0916	.0402
NET SES	-.0996	-.0219	.1560	-.3795*	-.0409	-.1046
GROSS SES	-.1237	-.1913	.0658	-.4924**	-.0771	.0791
FAMILY SIZE	-.1071	.1913	-.3080	.0718	-.1039	.0011
FATHERS' EDUCATION	-.0416	-.0569	.1461	-.2542	-.0081	-.0823
MOTHERS' EDUCATION	.0983	-.2005	.2516	-.3988*	.1010	.1227

\*  $p < .05$ , one-tailed test.\*\*  $p < .01$ , one-tailed test.

Note: N varies from 25 to 27

TABLE 4

CONCURRENT CORRELATIONS OF THIRD YEAR ANTECEDENT VARIABLES  
WITH THIRD YEAR I.S.C.S. SCALES

THIRD YEAR	THIRD YEAR SOCIAL COMPETENCY SCALES					
	TASK ORIENTED	DIS- RUPTIVE	LEADER	PHYSICALLY ACTIVE	AFFECT TOWARD PARENT	APPE- HENSIVE
ANOMIA	-.1503	.2090	-.1269	.4011 *	-.1895	.2596
ENVIRONMENTAL ASSESSMENT INDEX	.0951	-.1830	.3199	-.1473	.1338	-.3490 *
PARENT-CHILD INTERACTION	-.2127	-.1928	.0139	.2579	.0227	-.0316
NET SES	.0279	-.0401	.1178	-.2327	-.0190	-.1022
GROSS SES	-.1702	-.2797	.2342	-.2366	-.0505	-.0695
FAMILY SIZE	-.1239	.0875	-.3616 *	.0957	-.1033	-.0077
FATHERS' EDUCATION	.0765	-.1365	.1646	-.2045	.1068	-.1299
MOTHERS' EDUCATION	.0987	-.2155	.2511	-.4046 *	.1056	.1314

\*  $p < .05$ , one-tailed test.\*\*  $p < .01$ , one-tailed test.

Note: N varies from 26 to 27

qualities diminishes. Mother's education was negatively correlated with the Physically Active scale ( $r=-.40$ ,  $p = .02$ ).

Comparing the results in Table 3 with those in Table 4 there are four common significant or almost significant correlations. The first year environmental assessment index is positively correlated with the third year Leader scale ( $r=.49$ ,  $p = .01$ ). The concurrent environmental assessment index, however, is only marginally significantly correlated with the Leader scale ( $r=.32$ ,  $p = .06$ ) (refer to Figure 1). This suggests that the earlier environment had a more powerful effect on the development of leadership qualities than the later environment.

In Figure 2 the concurrent environmental assessment index is significantly and negatively associated with the Apprehensive scale ( $r=-.35$ ,  $p = .04$ ). No significant relationship, however, was found with first year environmental assessment index score and the third year Apprehensive scale ( $r=-.27$ ,  $p = .09$ ). These results suggest that children's current environment affects their apprehensive behaviors more than the environment two years earlier.

As shown in Figure 3, first year family size was marginally negatively correlated with the Leader scale ( $r=-.31$ ,  $p = .06$ ) while concurrent family size was negatively and significantly correlated to the Leader scale ( $r=-.36$ ,  $p = .04$ ). The current family size appears to have more of an impact on the development of leadership qualities than the family size two years earlier.

Mothers' education was significantly and negatively associated with the I.S.C.S. Physically Active scale when measured in first year as well as during third year ( $r=-.40$ ,  $p$

FIGURE 1

LONGITUDINAL ANALYSIS OF THE  
ENVIRONMENTAL ASSESSMENT INDEX WITH  
THE I.S.C.S. LEADER SCALE

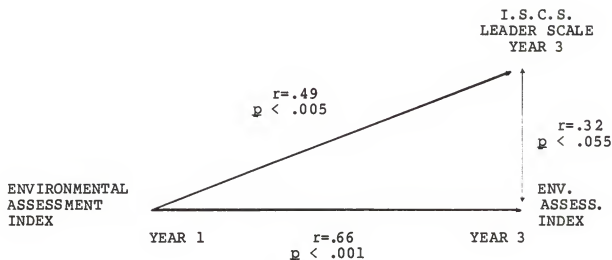


FIGURE 2

LONGITUDINAL ANALYSIS OF THE  
ENVIRONMENTAL ASSESSMENT INDEX WITH  
THE I.S.C.S. APPREHENSIVE SCALE

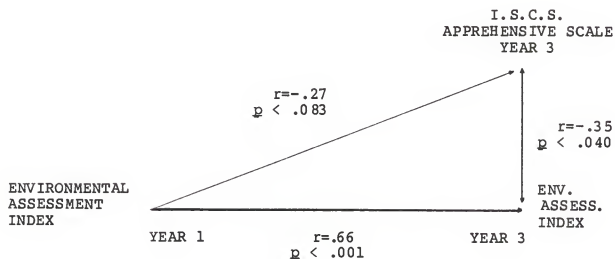


FIGURE 3

LONGITUDINAL ANALYSIS  
OF FAMILY SIZE WITH  
THE I.S.C.S. LEADER SCALE

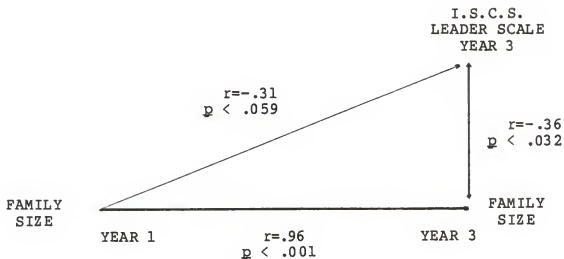
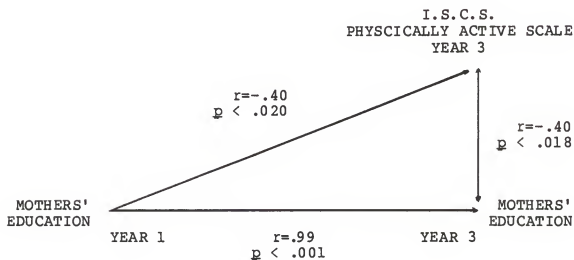


FIGURE 4

LONGITUDINAL ANALYSIS OF  
MOTHERS' EDUCATION WITH THE  
I.S.C.S. PHYSICALLY ACTIVE SCALE



= .02 and  $r = -.40$ ,  $p = .02$  respectively). This indicates that mothers with a higher level of education report their children to be less physically active and that this effect is consistent through the years.

Finally, Table 5 provides computed correlation coefficients for the antecedent variables at year one and at year three. Each item is significantly correlated with itself. This suggests that each variable, except parent-child interaction, measured a relatively stable variable over the three year study.



TABLE 5

**CORRELATION OF FIRST YEAR ANTECEDENT VARIABLES  
WITH THIRD YEAR ANTECEDENT VARIABLES**

	THIRD YEAR							
	ANOMIA	HOME ENVIRON	PARENT-CHILD INTERACTION	NET SES	GROSS SES	FAMILY SIZE	FATHER EDUC	MOTHER EDUC
<b>FIRST YEAR</b>								
ANOMIA	.64**	-.08	.33*	-.25	-.02	-.11	-.20	-.26*
ENVIRONMENTAL ASSESSMENT INDEX	-.16	.66**	-.04	.10	.35*	-.35*	.24	.47**
PARENT-CHILD INTERACTION	.03	.09	.35*	-.20	-.11	-.30*	.01	.09
NET SES	-.23	.34*	.01	.52**	.59**	-.25	.58**	.34*
GROSS SES	-.40**	.36*	.08	.41**	.72**	-.14	.50**	.56**
FAMILY SIZE	-.17	-.31*	-.30*	-.03	-.21	.96**	-.25	-.26*
FATHERS' EDUCATION	-.30*	.27*	-.10	.49**	.59**	-.28*	.95**	.32*
MOTHERS' EDUCATION	-.28*	.36*	.03	.37**	.57**	-.20	.41**	.99**

\*  $p < .05$ , one-tailed test.\*\*  $p < .01$ , one-tailed test.

Note: N varies from 36 to 41

## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION

It has long been taken for granted that the home environment influences children's development. Up until recent years, however, little research has been conducted to study which factors in the environment are most influential at what age. The recent focus has been on the home environment and how it is associated with young children's mental development (e.g., Bradley, Caldwell, & Elardo, 1979; Elardo, Bradley, & Caldwell, 1975, 1977; Poresky & Henderson, 1982).

It is generally agreed that mothers are a significant aspect of the children's home environment and influential in children's development. Maternal factors, however, have rarely been systematically studied as they relate to the child's development. One exception is the study conducted by Poresky (1984) where a negative association was found between maternal feelings of alienation (powerlessness) and the intellectual functioning of children. The purpose of the present study was to examine the effects the home environment, including maternal feelings of alienation, have on children's social development.

In looking at the longitudinal and concurrent correlations for the Environmental Assessment Index with the I.S.C.S. scales, two significant correlations were found. These associations were between the first year Environmental Assessment Index and the later I.S.C.S. Leader scale and between the third year Environmental Assessment Index and the I.S.C.S. Apprehensive scale. This lends partial support to the rejection of the null hypothesis that the environmental assessment index is not

associated with measures of children's social development.

The pattern of the longitudinal and concurrent associations of the Environmental Assessment Index with the I.S.C.S. Leader scale suggests that the early environment is more influential than the current environment in developing leadership qualities. Since the concurrent correlation was only a bit lower than the longitudinal correlation, the shift in influence seems to be a gradual one.

If this argument is true, that the influence of the environment shifts, the results of the association between family size and the I.S.C.S. Leader scale may provide some useful information. First year family size had a minimal inverse association with the third year Leader scale. Family size in the third year, however, was shown to be a significant influence on the Leader scale. Perhaps a large family size smothers children's attempts to be leaders and/or that these attempts are not supported and rewarded by the parents who are busy with other children, therefore decreasing their children's motivation to lead.

Further support for the previous explanation is provided by the results between the parent-child scores and the Leader scale. The first year Parent-Child Interaction scores were significantly associated with the Leader scale, but the concurrent Parent-Child Interaction scores were not. This suggests that as the child grew older, the influence of parent-child interaction decreased. This may have been a result of the larger family size which requires the parents to give the other children more attention. The possibility, that the child is not

rewarded and is therefore not motivated, is supported.

The significant negative correlation of the third year E.A.I. score with the Apprehensive scale suggests that better homes, homes with higher E.A.I. scores, had less apprehensive children. At the same time parent-child involvement influences diminished and parents may have begun not to focus on the older child as much. A large portion of the communication with children may revolve around discipline issues increasing apprehensive feelings of the children. In many families, sometimes the only attention children receive is when they are being disciplined. In homes that scored high more supportive mother-child interactions were observed. This would help explain why the children were more apprehensive in homes with low assessments and less apprehensive in homes with high environmental assessments.

Both the first and third year mother's education was inversely associated with the Physically Active scale. This suggests that mothers with higher education levels report their children to be less physically active. It may be that these mothers require their children to involve themselves with reading and more intellectual activities, leaving less time for physical activities. Less educated mothers, on the other hand, may not emphasize these areas and permit their children to fill their time with physical activities. Alternatively, higher educated mothers may expect their children to be less active and rate them as being less active. Conversely, less educated mothers may expect their children to be more active and rate them that way.

In reviewing the results on maternal feelings of alienation, one significant association was found. The third year Alienation scores were positively associated with the Physically Active scale. This provides an indication that there is a minimal amount of support for the the rejection of the hypothesis that maternal feelings of alienation are not associated with measures of children's social development.

These limited results do indicate that mothers who feel alienated from their world, perceive their children as being more physically active. It may be that mothers who themselves do not feel in control of their lives project onto their children the active, involved characteristics they desire to have. Alternatively, mothers who feel powerless may exert less control over their children and consequently their children are more physically active.

These results may also have implications for practioners working with children. The influence the home environment had on some aspects of social development suggests that those working with families should consider working with families to improve their home environments. Furthermore, the indication that mothers' attitudes have some influence on social development suggests that those concerned with children should also be concerned with the mothers' sense of alienation or lack of control.

Limitations are inherent in any study and this study is no exception. The children studied were all from midwestern rural farm backgrounds, therefore limiting the possibilities for generalizing these results. Since no reliability or validity

studies have been located, questions about the instruments' ability to precisely measure social development remain. Another possible limitation is that the data was collected during the late 1970's and may not characterize rural farm families at other times.

Future research in this area should concern itself with the more specific areas of children's environment (i.e., types of discipline utilized, time parents spend at home, etc.) and their relationship to the child's development. Maternal feelings of alienation may have been more significantly associated with the I.S.C.S. scales when the children were younger and more easily influenced by their mothers' felt powerlessness, thus, its effect should be studied on younger children. Older children may have developed enough inner strength to avoid being affected by their mothers' sense of powerlessness.

#### Summary

The longitudinal and concurrent correlation coefficients between the antecedent variables and measures of children's social development provided only minimal support (i.e., only four of the possible 36 primary relationships were significant) for the rejection of the two hypotheses that: (1) measures of the home environment (i.e., environmental assessment index, parent-child interactions, demographic factors) are not associated with measures of children's social development. (2) maternal alienation scores are not associated with the measures of children's social development. Specifically, we found the first year home assessment index was positively associated with

the longitudinal third year Leader scale and the third year home index was negatively associated with the third year Apprehensive scale. Concurrent maternal feelings of alienation were positively and significantly associated with the Physically Active scale. Finally, the parent-child interaction score was positively and significantly associated with the Leader scale.

## REFERENCES

- Ainsworth, M. D. S., Bell, S. M., & Stayton, D. J. (1971). Individual differences in strange-situation behavior of one-year-olds. In H.R. Schaffer (Ed.), The origins of human social relations. London: Academic Press.
- Ainsworth, M. D. S., & Wittig, B. A. (1969). Attachment and exploratory behavior of one-year-olds in a strange situation. In B. Foss (Ed.), Determinants of infant behaviour (Vol. 4). London: Methuen.
- Aronfreed, J. (1968). Aversive control of socialization. In W. J. Arnold (Ed.), Nebraska Symposium on Motivation (Vol. 16). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.
- Aronfreed, J., & Reber, A. (1965). Internalized behavioral suppression and the timing of social punishment. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1, 3-16.
- Bearison, D. J., & Cassel, T. Z. (1975). Cognitive decentration and social codes: Communicative effectiveness in young children from differing family contexts. Developmental Psychology, 11, 29-36.
- Bee, H.L. (1967). Parent-child interaction and distractibility in 9-year-old children. Merrill Palmer Quarterly, 13, 175-190.
- Bell, W. (1957). Anomie, social isolation, and the class structure. Sociometry, 20, 105-116.
- Belsky, J., Goode, M. K., & Most, R. K. (1980). Maternal stimulation and infant exploratory competence: Cross-sectional, correlational, and experimental analyses. Child Development, 51, 1163-1178.
- Boor, M. (1982). Relationship of anomia to perceived changes in financial status, 1973-1980. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 38(4), 891-892.
- Bowlby, J. (1958). The nature of the child's tie to his mother. International Journal of Psychoanalysis, 39, 350-373.
- Bowlby, J. (1973). Attachment and loss. Vol. 2: Separation. London: Hogarth Press.
- Bradley, R. H., & Caldwell, B. M. (1976). Early home environment and changes in mental test performance in children from 6 to 36 months. Developmental Psychology, 12, 93-97.(a)
- Bradley, R. H., & Caldwell, B. M. (1976). The relation of infants' home environment to mental test performance at fifty-four months: A follow-up study. Child Development, 47, 1172-1174.(b)
- Bradley, R. H., & Caldwell, B. M. (1980). Home environment, cognitive competence, and IQ among males and females. Child Development, 51, 1140-1148.
- Bradley, R. H., & Caldwell, B. M. (1984). The relation of infants' home environments to achievement test performance in first grade: A follow-up study. Child Development, 55, 803-809.
- Bradley, R. H., Caldwell, B. M., & Elardo, R. (1979). Home environment and cognitive development in the first 2 years: A cross-lagged panel analysis. Developmental Psychology, 15, 246-250.
- Bronson, W.C. (1975). Developments in behavior with age mates



- during the second year of life. In M. Lewis & L.A. Rosenblum (Eds.), The origins of behavior: Friendship and peer relations. New York: Wiley.
- Bryan, J. H., & Schwartz, T. H. (1971). The effects of filmed material upon children's behavior. Psychological Bulletin, 75, 50-59.
- Bryan, J. H., & Walbek, N. (1970). Preaching and practicing generosity: Children's actions and reactions. Child Development, 41, 329-353.
- Buriel, R. (1981). The relation of Anglo- and Mexican-American children's locus of control beliefs to parents' and teachers' socialization practices. Child Development, 52, 104-113.
- Cairns, R. B. (1979). Social development: The origins and plasticity of interchanges. San Francisco: W. H. Freeman and Company.
- Caldwell, M. (1967). Descriptive evaluations of child development and of developmental settings. Pediatrics, 40, 46-54.
- Crockenberg, S. B. (1981). Infant irritability, mother responsiveness, and social support influences on the security of infant-mother attachment. Child Development, 52, 857-865.
- Crusec, J. E., Kuczynski, L., Rushton, J. P., & Simutis, Z. (1979). Learning resistance to temptation through observation. Developmental Psychology, 15, 233-240.
- Davis, W. L., & Phares, E. J. (1969). Parental antecedents of internal-external control of reinforcement. Psychological Reports, 24, 427-436.
- Durkheim, E. (1951). Suicide (J. A. Spaulding & G. Simpson, Trans.). New York: Free Press. (Original work published 1897)
- Egeland, B., & Sroufe, L. A. (1981). Attachment and early maltreatment. Child Development, 52, 44-52.
- Elardo, R., Bradley, R., & Caldwell, B. (1975). The relation of infants' home environments to mental test performance from six to thirty-six months: A longitudinal analysis. Child Development, 46, 71-76.
- Elardo, R., Bradley, R., & Caldwell, B. M. (1977). A longitudinal study of the relation of infants' home environments to language development age three. Child Development, 48, 595-603.
- Eron, L. D. (1982). Parent-child interaction, television violence, and aggression of children. American Psychologist, 37, 197-211.
- Findley, M. J., & Cooper, H. M. (1983). Locus of control and academic achievement: A literature review. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 44, 419-427.
- Fischer, W. F. (1963). Sharing in preschool children as a function of amount and type of reinforcement. Genetic Psychology Monographs, 68, 215-245.
- Freund, J. H., & Elardo, R. Maternal behavior and family constellation as predictors of social competence among learning disabled children. Learning Disability Quarterly, 1, 80-86.
- Goodenough, F. L. (1931). Anger in young children. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

- Gunnar-Vongnechten, M. (1978). Changing a frightening toy into a pleasant toy by allowing the infant to control its actions. Developmental Psychology, 14, 157-162.
- Gunnar, M. (1980). Control, warning signals, and distress in infancy. Developmental Psychology, 16, 218-289.
- Hartup, W. W. (1974). Aggression in childhood: Developmental perspectives. American Psychologist, 29, 336-341.
- Hay, D. F. (1979). Cooperative interactions and sharing between very young children and their parents. Developmental Psychology, 15, 647-653.
- Henderson, R. W. (1981). Home environment and intellectual performance. In R. W. Henderson (Ed.), Parent-child Interaction: Theory, Research, and Prospects (pp. 4-32). New York, NY: Academic Press, Inc.
- Hoffman, M. L. (1970). Moral development. In P. H. Mussen (Ed.), Carmichael's Manual of Child Psychology (Vol. 2) New York: John Wiley & Sons relationship.
- Honzik, M. P. (1967). Environmental correlates of mental growth: Prediction from the family setting at 21 months. Child Development, 38, 337-364.
- Jacobowitz, M. (1974). Personality and demographic correlates of moral transgression and psychological defense among preadolescent children. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Iowa State University.
- Jarrett, W. H., & Haller, A. O. (1964). Situational and personal antecedents of incipient alienation: An exploratory study. Genetic Psychology Monographs, 69, 151-191.
- Jonhston, J. M. (1972). Punishment of human behavior. American Psychologist, 27, 1033-54.
- Katkovsky, W., Grandall, V. C., & Good, S. (1967). Parental antecedents of children's beliefs in internal-external control of reinforcements in intellectual achievement situations. Child Development, 38, 765-776.
- Kohlberg, L. A. (1969). Stage and sequence: The cognitive-developmental approach to socialization. In D. A. Goslin (Ed.), Handbook of socialization theory and research. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Kohlberg, L. A. (1976). Moral stages and moralization: The cognitive-developmental approach. In T. Lickona (Ed.), Moral development and behavior. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Lavoie, J. C. (1970). Punishment and adolescent self-control: A study of the effects of aversive stimulation, reasoning, and sex of parent. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Wisconsin.
- Lee, G. R. (1974). Marriage and anomie: A causal argument. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 36(3), 523-532.
- Leonard, W. M. (1977). Sociological and social-psychological correlates of anomia among a random sample of aged. Journal of Gerontology, 32, 303-310.
- Leung, E. H. L., & Rheingold, H. L. (1981). Development of pointing as a social gesture. Developmental Psychology, 17, 215-220.
- Loeb, R. (1975). Concomitants of boys' locus of control examined in parent-child interactions. Developmental Psychology, 11, 353-359.

- Lovell-Troy, L. A. (1983). Anomia among employed wives and housewives: An exploratory analysis. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 45, 301-310.
- Maccoby, E. E. (1980). Social development: Psychological growth and the parent-child relationship. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- MacDonald, A. P. (1971). Internal-external locus of control: Parental antecedents. Journal of Clinical and Consulting Psychology, 47, 141-147.
- Maddi, S. R., Kobasa, S. C., & Hoover, M. (1979). An alienation test. Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 19(4), 73-76.
- Matas, L., Arend, R. A., & Sroufe, L. A. (1978). Continuity of adaptation in the second year: The relationship between quality of attachment and later competence. Child Development, 49, 547-556.
- Meier, D. L., & Bell, W. (1959). Anomia and differential access to the achievement of life goals. American Sociological Review, 24, 189-202.
- Midlarsky, E., & Bryan, J. H. (1972). Affect expressions and children's imitative altruism. Journal of Experimental Research in Personality, 6, 195-203.
- Midlarsky, E., Bryan, J. H., & Brickman, P. (1973). Aversive approval: Interactive effects of modeling and reinforcement on altruistic behavior. Child Development, 44, 321-328.
- Nettler, G. (1957). A measure of alienation. American Sociological Review, 22, 670-677.
- Newson, J., & Newson, E. (1968). Four years old in an urban community. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co.
- North Central Regional Project Number 124. (1981). Life span analysis of the mental and social development of rural children (NCRR Publication No. 285). Madison, Wisconsin: Wisconsin Agricultural Experiment Station.
- Parke, R. D. (1977). Some effects of punishment on children's behavior-revisited. In E.M. Hetherington & R.D. Parke (Eds.), Contemporary readings in child psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Pastor, D.L. (1981). The quality of mother-infant attachment and its relationship to toddlers' initial sociability with peers. Developmental Psychology, 17, 326-335.
- Pease, D., Clark, S., Crase, S. J. (1979). Iowa Social Competency Scales: School-Age and Preschool Manual. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Research Foundation, Inc.
- Pease, D., Clark, S., Crase, S. J. (1981). The social competency scale for preschool-age children: Its development and factorial validity. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 41, 851-861.
- Poresky, R. H. (1984, March). Home environment and maternal alienation: Longitudinal effects on rural children's intellectual functioning--A cross lagged analysis. Paper presented at the meeting of the Southwestern Society for Research in Human Development, Denver, CO.
- Poresky, R. H., Atilano, R. B., & Hawkins, K. (1981). Anomia in rural women: A longitudinal comparison of two measures. Psychological Reports, 49, 480-482.
- Poresky, R. H., & Atilano, R. B. (1982). Alienation in rural women: A longitudinal cross-lagged analysis of its

- association with community and family involvement, socioeconomic status, and education. Home Economics Research Journal, 11(2), 183-188.
- Poresky, R. H., & Henderson, M. L. (1982). Infants' mental and motor development: Effects of home environment, maternal attitudes, marital adjustment, and socioeconomic status. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 54, 695-702.
- Reimanis, G. (1965). Relationship of childhood experience memories to anomie later in life. The Journal of Genetic Psychology, 106, 245-252.
- Rice, M. E., & Crusec, J. E. (1975). Saying and doing: Effects on observer performance. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 32, 584-593.
- Robinson, J. P., & Shaver, P. R. (1973). Measures of social psychological attitudes. Ann Arbor: Survey Research Center, University of Michigan.
- Rodin, J. (1976). Density, perceived choice, response to controllable and uncontrollable outcomes. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 12, 564-578.
- Rosenkoetter, L. I. (1973). Resistance to temptation: Inhibitory and disinhibitory effects of models. Developmental Psychology, 8, 80-84.
- Ross, S. A. (1971). A test of the generality of the effects of deviant preschool models. Developmental Psychology, 4, 262-67.
- Rushton, J. P. (1975). Generosity in children: Immediate and long-term effects of modeling, preaching, and moral judgment. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 31, 459-466.
- Rushton, J. P. (1980). Altruism, socialization, and society. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Ryan, J. (1981). Marital status, happiness, and anomia. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 43, 643-649.
- Sears, R. R., Maccoby, E. E., & Levin, H. (1957). Patterns of child rearing. New York: Harper & Row.
- Selman, R. L. (1971). The relation of role taking to the development of moral judgment in children. Child Development, 42, 79-91.
- Selman, R. L. (1976). Social-cognitive understanding: A guide to educational and clinical practice. In T. Lickona (Ed.), Moral development and behavior. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Seeman, M. (1959). On the meaning of alienation. American Sociological Review, 10, 256-264.
- Shaffer, David R. (1985). Developmental psychology: Theory, research, and applications. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.
- Shaffer, H. R., & Emerson, P. E. (1964). The development of social attachments in infancy. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 29(3, Serial No. 94).
- Siegel, L. S. (1981). Infant tests as predictors of cognitive and language development at two years. Child Development, 52, 545-557.
- Simpson, R. L., & Miller, H. M. (1963). Social status and anomia. Social Problems, 10, 256-264.
- Spivack, G. & Swift, M. (1976). Devereaux Elementary School

- Behavior Rating Scale Manual. The Devereaux Foundation, Devon, Pennsylvania.
- Srole, L. (1956). Social integration and certain corollaries. American Sociological Review, 21, 709-716.
- Sroufe, L. A., & Waters, E. (1977). Attachment as an organizational construct. Child Development, 48, 1184-99.
- Stein, A. H. (1967). Imitation of resistance to temptation. Child Development, 38, 157-69.
- Thompson, R. A., Lamb, M. E., & Estes, D. (1982). Stability of infant-mother attachment and its relationship to changing life circumstances in an unselected middle-class sample. Child Development, 53, 144-148.
- Toner, I. J., Parke, R. D., & Yussen, S. R. (1978). The effect of observation of model behavior on the establishment and stability of resistance to deviation in children. Journal of Genetic Psychology, 132, 283-290.
- Toner, I. J., & Potts, R. (1981). The effect of modeled rationales on moral behavior, moral choice, and level of moral judgment in children. The Journal of Psychology, 107, 153-162.
- Underwood, B., & Moore, B. (1982). Perspective-taking and altruism. Psychological Bulletin, 91, 143-173.
- Vaughn, B. E., Egeland, B. R., Sroufe, L. A., & Waters, E. (1979). Individual differences in infant-mother attachment at twelve and eighteen months: Stability and change in families under stress. Child Development, 50, 971-975.
- Verna, G. B. (1977). The effects of four-hour delay of punishment under two conditions of verbal instruction. Child Development, 48, 621-624.
- Walters, R. H., & Parke, R. D. (1964). Influence of response consequences to a social model on resistance to deviation. Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 1, 269-280.
- Walters, R. H., Parke, R. D., & Cane, V. A. (1965). Timing of punishment and the observation of consequences to others as determinants of response inhibition. Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 2, 10-30.
- Waters, E., Wippman, J., & Sroufe, L. A. (1979). Attachment, positive affect, and competence in the peer group: Two studies in construct validation. Child Development, 50, 821-829.
- Wichern, F., & Nowicki, S. (1976). Independence training practices and locus of control orientation in children and adolescents. Developmental Psychology, 12, 77.
- Wirth, S., & Pease, D. (1983). Convergent and discriminant validity of the iowa social competency scale for preschool children. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 43, 305-314.
- Wolf, T. M., & Cheyne, J. A. (1972). Persistence of effects of live behavioral, televised behavioral, and live verbal models of resistance to deviation. Child Development, 43, 1429-36.
- Radke-Yarrow, M. R., Scott, P. M., & Zahn-Waxler, C. Z. (1973). Learning concern for others. Developmental Psychology, 8, 240-60.
- Zahn-Waxler, C., Radke-Yarrow, M., & King, R. A. (1979). Child rearing and children's prosocial initiations toward victims of distress. Child Development, 50, 319-330.

Zeskind, P. S., & Ramey, G. T. (1981). Preventing intellectual and interactional sequelae of fetal malnutrition: A longitudinal, transactional, and synergistic approach to development. Child Development, 52, 213-218.

## APPENDIX

A. Iowa Social Competency Scales - School-Age (Mother Form)

B. Kansas Home Interview Scales

1. Demographic Data
2. Parent-Child Involvement
3. Anomia
4. Environmental Assessment Index

IOWA SOCIAL COMPETENCY SCALE: SCHOOL-AGE<sup>1</sup> (MOTHER FORM)

Damaris Pease, Sam Clark, Sedahlia Jasper Crase  
Department of Child Development  
Iowa State University

---

CHILD'S NAME \_\_\_\_\_ DATE OF RATING \_\_\_\_\_

CHILD'S SEX \_\_\_\_\_ CHILD'S BIRTHDATE \_\_\_\_\_  
(month, day, year)

MOTHER'S NAME \_\_\_\_\_

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS

All ratings are made in comparison to what you believe to be the typical behavior of an average(normal) child in a family situation. Before you begin to rate the items, have firmly in mind the child you are rating. Consider only the behavior of that child over the past month.

Base your ratings on your own experience with your child. Consider only our own impressions. As much as possible, ignore what others have said about your child. Consider each question independently. Base ratings on outward behavior you actually observe. Do not try to interpret what might be going on in the child's mind.

RATING DIRECTIONS

The items tend to describe behavior you would expect to find in most children. We are interested in knowing if your child displays

---

<sup>1</sup>Adapted from Devereaux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale by George Spivack and Marshall Swift.

©Copyright, 1977, 1976. Iowa State University Research Foundation, Inc. All rights reserved.



the behaviors described in the items more or less frequently than the average child. In the space provided to the left of each statement, place a number (1 to 5) that seems to you to best represent how frequently, compared to the average child, your child behaves in the manner described.

For example, if you believe your child behaves as described in item 1 you may decide to place a 5 (almost always) in the rating column. However, if you think your child displays the behavior sometimes but not as frequently as other children you may place a 2 (seldom) in the rating column. If you decide to give your child a rating of 3 it would mean that you do not know if your child displays the described behavior more or less than the average child or that you think he/she behaves about like the average child.

Use any number from 1 to 5 and make use of the full range whenever possible. Rate each statement quickly. If you are unable to reach a decision quickly, go on to the next statement and come back later to the one skipped. Be sure to rate every statement.

# RATING SCALE

He/she <u>almost never</u> behaves that way	He/she <u>seldom</u> behaves that way	He/she behaves <u>about like</u> the average child or <u>uncertain</u>	He/she <u>often</u> behaves that way	He/she <u>almost always</u> behaves that way
1	2	3	4	5
Almost Never	Seldom	About Like or Uncertain	Often	Almost Always

## DOES YOUR CHILD...

RATING	ITEM
_____ 1.	Make informed decisions?
_____ 2.	Tell stories or describe things imaginatively?
_____ 3.	Discuss everything with you?
_____ 4.	Complain you never let him/her do anything first (e.g., you first ask his/her brothers, sisters, or other children to help you)?
_____ 5.	Initiate actions that others follow?
_____ 6.	Refuse to give other children a chance to do things for themselves?
_____ 7.	Act defiant (e.g., will not do what he/she is asked to do, says "I won't do it")?
_____ 8.	Like to be physically close to you (e.g., hug or touch you, stand next to you, etc.)?
_____ 9.	Initiate group activities that others follow?
_____ 10.	Show worry or get anxious about knowing the "right" things to do?
_____ 11.	Get openly disturbed about discussing his/her performance (e.g., may cry, get emotionally upset, etc.)?
_____ 12.	Enjoy going with you to visit relatives?
_____ 13.	Make a gift for you on a special occasion?
_____ 14.	Interrupt when others are talking?
_____ 15.	Climb trees?

He/she <u>almost never</u> behaves that way	He/she <u>seldom</u> behaves that way	He/she behaves <u>about like</u> the average child or <u>uncertain</u>	He/she <u>often</u> behaves that way	He/she <u>almost always</u> behaves that way
--	--	---	---	---

1	2	3	4	5
Almost Never	Seldom	About Like or Uncertain	Often	Almost Always

DOES YOUR CHILD...

RATING

ITEM

- \_\_\_\_\_ 16. Show affection toward you?
- \_\_\_\_\_ 17. Continue to play the game even though his/her team is losing?
- \_\_\_\_\_ 18. Know what to do when needed (e.g., give his/her name and address to policeman, hold plate so as not to tip it when serving to company, know where his/her father works, name his/her siblings)?
- \_\_\_\_\_ 19. Poke, torment or tease other children when he/she is with them?
- \_\_\_\_\_ 20. Play baseball with other children?
- \_\_\_\_\_ 21. Suggest ideas that other children use?
- \_\_\_\_\_ 22. Go bicycling with other children?
- \_\_\_\_\_ 23. Appear sensitive to criticism or correction about his/her behavior, particularly his/her behavior with those outside the family (e.g., gets angry, sulks, seems "defeated", etc.)?
- \_\_\_\_\_ 24. Persist at tasks that appear hard for him/her?
- \_\_\_\_\_ 25. Relate personal experience or things he/she has heard to family discussions?
- \_\_\_\_\_ 26. Struggle to control a group of children?

INTERVIEW FORM  
KANSAS HOME INTERVIEW SCALES

I. SAMPLING DATA

Coding:

Card number:	$\frac{0}{1}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	
State: Illinois = 1, Indiana = 2, Iowa = 3, Kansas = 4, Nebraska = 5, Wisconsin = 6, Michigan = 7, Missouri = 8			<u>3</u>
Family number (within state): 000			<u>4</u> <u>5</u> <u>6</u>
Data collection year: 1976=1, 1977=2, 1978=3, 1979=4			<u>7</u>
Instrument: demographic		$\frac{1}{8}$	
(unassigned)		<u>9</u>	

Review of Screening Questions:

- |  |           |
|--|-----------|
| 1. <u>Does your family live on a farm of at least</u><br><u>10 acres?</u> yes (2), no (1)  | <u>10</u> |
| 2. <u>Have you and your husband lived on a farm</u><br><u>continuously for the past five years?</u><br>yes (2), no (1)   | <u>11</u> |
| 3. <u>Does your family derive some income from the</u><br><u>farm directly (e.g., sales of crops or animals,</u><br><u>rental of land, etc.)</u> yes (2), no (1) | <u>12</u> |
| 4. <u>Has (target child) been raised by both parents</u><br>since one year of age or younger? yes (2), no (1)  | <u>13</u> |

5 Does (target child) have any developmental handicaps such as blindness, deafness or mental retardation? yes (2), no (1) 14

6. Does this household have a father and a mother living in it? yes (2), no (1) 15

7. Are you the mother of (target child)?  
yes (2), no (1) 16

8. Are you willing to participate in this study?  
yes (2), no (1) 17

Confirm the name, sex, date of birth and  
current educational level of the target child.

1=not confirmed, 2=confirmed 18

Child information:

Sex of target child: male = 1, female = 2 19

Chronological age of target child in months

at time of testing 20 21 22

Current educational level: preschool,  
nursery, Head Start = 1, Kindergarten = 2,

first grade = 3, second grade = 4,

(code grade level + 2) 23

Confirm informed consent: ordinal position

overflow, 1=tenth child, 2=eleventh child, etc. 24

## II. DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

NOW WE WOULD LIKE TO ASK YOU SOME QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR FAMILY AND YOUR HOME.

- |    |    |  |           |
|----|----|--|-----------|
| 1. | a. | <u>How many daughters are living here?</u>           | <u>25</u> |
|    | b. | <u>How many sons are living here?</u>                | <u>26</u> |
|    | c. | <u>Are there other sons not living at home?</u>      |           |
|    |    | If yes, <u>how many?</u> (Code number 0 for none.)   | <u>27</u> |
|    | d. | <u>Are there other daughters not living at home?</u> |           |
|    |    | If yes, <u>how many?</u> (Code number 0 for none.)   | <u>28</u> |
|    | e. | Ordinal position of target child.                    | <u>29</u> |
- Extended family:
- |  |    |  |           |
|--|----|--|-----------|
|  | f. | <u>How many other adults also live here?</u> |           |
|  |    | (over 21 years old)                          | <u>30</u> |
|  | g. | <u>How many other children live here?</u>    | <u>31</u> |
- |    |    |  |           |           |
|----|----|--|-----------|-----------|
| 2. | a. | <u>How old is your husband?</u> (Code        |           |           |
|    |    | age in years.)                               | <u>32</u> | <u>33</u> |
|    | b. | <u>How old are you?</u> (Code age in years.) | <u>34</u> | <u>35</u> |
- |    |   |           |
|----|---|-----------|
| 3. | Ethnic identity by observation: White (1),<br>Black (2), Chicano (3), American Indian (4),<br>Other (5) | <u>36</u> |
|----|---|-----------|
- |    |  |                     |
|----|--|---------------------|
| 4. | a. <u>What was the highest grade in school your<br/>husband completed?</u> (Circle one grade.) |                     |
|    | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13  |                     |
|    | 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24   | <u>37</u> <u>38</u> |
|    | (12=high school, 16=BA/BS, 18=MA/MS,<br>22=Ph.D./Ed.D.)  |                     |

- b. What was the highest grade in school  
you completed? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8  
 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18  
 19 20 21 22 23 24 (12=high school,  
 16=BA/BS, 18=MA/MS, 22=Ph.D./Ed.D.) 39 40
5. a. What is your husband's primary occupation?  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Refer to manual for coding. 41 42
- b. Is this full-time (2) or part-time (1)?  
 (Full time = 40 hours) 43
- In all cases probe for secondary occupation.
- c. Secondary occupation \_\_\_\_\_ 44 45
6. a. What is your primary occupation? 46 47
- b. Is this full-time (2) or part-time (1)? 48
- c. Secondary occupation? \_\_\_\_\_ 49 50

Present response cards at this time.

7. a. Which net income bracket on this page most  
closely corresponds to your family's net  
income in 1975? (Code gross income bracket.)  
 (04,999=1, 5,000-9,999=2, 10,000-14,999=3,  
 15,000-19,999=4, 20,000-29,999=5, 30,000-  
 49,999=6, 50,000-74,999=7, 75,000+ =8) 51
- (unassigned) 52
- b. Which net income bracket on this page most  
closely corresponds to your family's gross income  
in 1975? (Code gross income bracket.) 53

(unassigned)

54

8. Do you earn \$1,000 or more (gross) from products produced on the land and work less than 100 days off the farm? yes (2), no (1)

55

9. a. What is the size of your farm (in acres)?

56 57 58, 59 60 61

- b. How much, if any, additional land do you rent?

62 63 64, 65 66 67

Comments \_\_\_\_\_

see manual  
for coding

68 69

Card No. 1 5  
1 2

Same as card 01

3-7  
5  
8

We would like to turn to another topic now.

(unassigned)

9

1. What would you like (target child) to be most when he/she grows up?

- a. (first choice) \_\_\_\_\_

Refer to manual for coding.

10 11

Next?

- b. (second choice) \_\_\_\_\_

12 13

2. (if farming is not mentioned) Would you object to farming? Coding: would object=1, would not object=2, farming given above=3

14



Please turn the page in your respondent's manual to the satisfaction scales. (Explain the use of the scale, numeric responses required.)

3. On this scale from one to seven, how satisfied would you say you are with your occupation, if any? Record the number of the response given. If no response due to refusal code an "8". Code "0" if not administered. 15
4. On the same scale, how satisfied do you feel as a parent? Record the number of the response as above. 16
5. On the same scale, how satisfied are you with your family life? Record the number of the response above. 17
6. On this satisfaction scale, how satisfied do you think your husband feels about his occupation (job)?  
Record the number of the response as above. 18
7. On the same scale, how satisfied do you think your husband feels as a parent? Record the number of the response as above. 19
8. On the same scale, how satisfied do you think your husband feels about his family life? 20
9. In regard to your net income, how satisfied do you feel? Record the number of the response as above. 21
10. In regard to your net income, how satisfied do you think your husband feels? Record the number of the response as above. 22

Comments: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

23

24

#### IV. INVOLVEMENT INDEX

We are also interested in the amount of contact your family has with other families. The following questions will focus on this question.

1. a. Of the families in your community, what percentage of them do you know by name? Record the percentage given or convert. Check with a probe of the response given, i.e., one quarter=25 percent, one third=33 percent, etc.

25   26   27

- b. Of the families in the community, what percentage does your husband know by name?  
Code as above.

28   29   30

2. a. Of your friends, what percentage were you in touch with during the last 12 months?  
Code as above.

31   32   33

- b. Of your husband's friends, about what percentage was he in touch with during the last 12 months? Code as above.

34   35   36

3. a. Of your relatives, what percentage have you been in touch with during the last 12 months?  
Code as above.

37   38   39

b. Of your husband's relatives, about what

percentage has he been in touch with during

the last 12 months? Code as above.

40   41   42

4. a. We are interested in how often during the last  
year you participated in these activities and  
organizations:

Activity/Organization	Frequency Per Year				Frequency Scale
1. Visit Neighbors	<u>43</u>	<u>44</u>	<u>45</u>	<u>46</u>	<u>67</u>
2. School (PTA, etc.)		<u>47</u>	<u>48</u>	<u>49</u>	<u>68</u>
3. Church		<u>50</u>	<u>51</u>	<u>52</u>	<u>69</u>
4. Fraternal organizations (Elks, Moose, etc.)		<u>53</u>	<u>54</u>	<u>55</u>	<u>70</u>
5. Farm organizations (Grange, etc.)		<u>56</u>	<u>57</u>	<u>58</u>	<u>71</u>
6. Home Economics or County Extension programs		<u>59</u>	<u>60</u>	<u>61</u>	<u>72</u>
7. Other activities.....		<u>62</u>	<u>63</u>	<u>64</u>	<u>73</u>
specify _____		<u>65</u>	<u>66</u>		

(see manual for coding)

Card No.  $\frac{1}{1}$     $\frac{6}{2}$

Same as Card 01.   3-7

4. b. We are also interested in how often  
during the last year your husband  
participated in these activities and  
organizations.

$\frac{5}{8}$

(unassigned)  $\frac{b}{9}$

Activity/Organization	Frequency Per Year				Frequency Scale
1. <u>Visit neighbors</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>64</u>
2. <u>School</u> (PTA, etc.)		<u>14</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>65</u>
3. <u>Church</u>		<u>17</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>19</u>	<u>66</u>
4. <u>Fraternal organizations</u> (Elks, Moose, etc.)		<u>20</u>	<u>21</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>67</u>
5. <u>Farm organizations</u> (Grange, etc.)		<u>23</u>	<u>24</u>	<u>25</u>	<u>68</u>
6. <u>Home Economics or County</u> <u>Extension Programs</u>		<u>26</u>	<u>27</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>69</u>
7. <u>Other activities....</u>		<u>29</u>	<u>30</u>	<u>31</u>	<u>70</u>
(specify) _____ (refer to manual for codes)			<u>32</u>	<u>33</u>	

5. How often during the last 12 months have  
either or both of the parents and  
(target child) gone out together to:

	Frequency Per Year				Frequency Scale
1. <u>Sports events</u> (basketball, football, bowling)	<u>34</u>	<u>35</u>	<u>36</u>		<u>71</u>
2. <u>Movies</u>	<u>37</u>	<u>38</u>	<u>39</u>		<u>72</u>
3. <u>Visit relatives</u>	<u>40</u>	<u>41</u>	<u>42</u>		<u>73</u>
4. <u>Visit friends</u>	<u>43</u>	<u>44</u>	<u>45</u>		<u>74</u>
5. <u>Outings</u> (trips to the park, playground, swimming pool, fishing, picnics)	<u>46</u>	<u>47</u>	<u>48</u>		<u>75</u>
6. <u>Longer trips of a week or more</u>	<u>49</u>	<u>50</u>	<u>51</u>		<u>76</u>
7. <u>Other parent-child activities</u>	<u>52</u>	<u>53</u>	<u>54</u>		

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

55 56

Please turn to the next page in the respondent booklet.

Please tell me if you agree or disagree with the following statements.

6. a. Most public officials (people in public offices) are not really interested in the problems of the average man.  
Code: 1=disagree, 2=agree 57
- b. Nowadays a person has to live pretty much for today and let tomorrow take care of itself.  
Code: 1=disagree, 2=agree 58
- c. In spite of what some people say, the lot of the average man is getting worse, not better.  
Code: 1=disagree, 2=agree 59
- d. It's hardly fair to bring children into the world with the way things look for the future.  
Code: 1=disagree, 2=agree 60
- e. These days a person doesn't really know who he can count on. Code: 1=disagree, 2=agree 61
- f. Most people don't care what happens to the next fellow. Code: 1=disagree, 2=agree 62
- g. Next to health, money is the most important thing in life. Code: 1=disagree, 2=agree 63
- h. You sometimes can't help wondering whether anything is worthwhile. Code: 1=disagree, 2=agree 64

- i. To make money there are no right or wrong ways anymore, only easy and hard ways.

Code: 1=disagree, 2=agree

65

V. CHILD CARE INDEX

Now we would like to ask about child care.

1. a. Has (target child) been taken care of by someone other than his/her mother or father for more than a day or so, before he/she went to school?

yes (2), no (1)

66

- b. If yes, then who? \_\_\_\_\_ (See manual)

67

If no, go to question 4.

2. Where was this care provided? Own home (1), babysitter's home (2), child care center (3), relative's home (4), other (specify) (5)

68

3. How long, in months, was this care provided?

\_\_\_\_\_ total weeks/lifetime of target child.

(Code number of weeks.)

69 70 71

Card

1 7  
1 2

Same as Card 01

3-7

For all respondents:

blank

9

4. If for some reason, you suddenly needed child care for a day, what arrangements could you make?

\_\_\_\_\_ 4a. (See manual.)

10

What about a week? (including overnight care)

\_\_\_\_\_ 4b. (See manual.) 11

And if it were for a month or longer? 4c. (See manual.) 12

5. a. Recently there has been a lot of interest in  
arrangements for child care which would allow  
both parents to take jobs. Could you arrange  
for the child(ren) to be taken care of while  
you both worked? yes (2), no (1) 13

b. If yes, what sort of arrangements could be made?  
\_\_\_\_\_ (See manual.) 14

c. If no, Why is that? \_\_\_\_\_ (See manual.) 15

\_\_\_\_\_  
(unassigned)

VI. ENVIRONMENTAL ASSESSMENT INDEX

A. INTERVIEW/OBSERVATION ITEMS

Read manual thoroughly. Use observations and/or  
questions to obtain answers.

column

Code: yes=2, no=1

1. Things requiring visual discrimination (toy  
typewriter, pressouts, play school, peg boards,  
hidden face games or toys making use of color  
discrimination). 16

Code: yes=2, no=1

- |     |   |    |
|-----|---|----|
| 2.  | Toys or games facilitating learning letters, words, writing, or reading (books about letters, labeling books, toy typewriter, letter sticks, pencils, stencils, blocks with letters). | 17 |
| 3.  | Three or more puzzles.  | 18 |
| 4.  | Two toys or tools necessitating finger and whole hand movement (dolls and doll clothing, toy pistols, clay or play dough, pliers or drill).   | 19 |
| 5.  | Record player and at least five records appropriate to the child's age.   | 20 |
| 6.  | Real or toy musical instrument (piano, drum, toy xylophone or guitar).  | 21 |
| 7.  | Toy or game encouraging free expression (finger paints, play dough, crayons, paints and paper art supplies, drawing paper, colored pencils).  | 22 |
| 8.  | Toys or games necessitating fine motor coordination (paint by numbers, dot book, paper dolls, pick-up-sticks, model airplanes).   | 23 |
| 9.  | Opportunity to learn about animals (animals, books, 4-H).   | 24 |
| 10. | Toys or games facilitating learning numbers and math concepts (blocks with numbers, books about numbers, number cards, flash cards).  | 25 |
| 11. | Building toys, (building blocks, Lincoln logs, tinker toys, zig-zag puzzles, erector set).  | 26 |
| 12. | Family buys a newspaper daily and reads it.   | 27 |



Code: yes=2, no=1		column
13. Family subscribes to at least one magazine.		28
14. Child has been to a museum, historical or art, in the past year.		29
15. Child goes to town at least once a week. (Do not credit school attendance.)		30
16. Child goes to the library at least once a month. (Do not credit school library.)		31
17. Family has a TV, and it is used judiciously, not left on continuously. (No TV requires automatic "no." Any scheduling scores "yes").		32
18. Parent turns on special TV programs regarded "good" for the children by the mother.		33
19. Someone reads stories with the child or discusses pictures in magazines at least five times weekly.		34
20. Child has a special place in which to keep his/her things and "treasures," (other than clothing).		35
21. Child is encouraged to learn to use numbers or mathematics.		36
22. Child is encouraged to learn to tell time.		37
23. Child is encouraged to learn to make bed, pick up toys, and clean his/her room without help.		38
24. Child is taught rules of social behavior which involve recognition of rights of others.		39

Code: yes=2, no=1	column
25. Parent teaches child some simple manners -- to say, "please," "thank you," "I'm sorry."	<u>40</u>
26. Some delay of food gratification is demanded of the child.	<u>41</u>
27. Ten or more children's books are present and visible in the home.	<u>42</u>
28. At least 10 other books are visible in the home.	<u>43</u>
29. Child's outside play environment appears safe and free of hazards.	<u>44</u>
30. The interior of the home is not dark or perceptably monotonous. (yes=2=light)	<u>45</u>
31. House is not overly noisy - TV, shouts of children radio, etc. (yes=2=not noisy)	<u>46</u>
32. The rooms are not overcrowded with furniture. (yes=2=not overcrowded)	<u>47</u>
33. All visible rooms of the house are reasonably clean and minimally cluttered.	<u>48</u>
34. Mother used complex sentence structure and some long words in conversing.	<u>49</u>
35. Mother used correct grammar and pronunciation.	<u>50</u>
36. Mother's speech is distinct, clear and audible.	<u>51</u>
37. Child's art work or awards are displayed someplace in the house (anything that the child makes).	<u>52</u>

	column
38. Mother introduces interviewer to child.	53
39. Mother converses with child at least twice during the visit (scolding and skeptical comments not counted).	54
40. Mother answers child's questions or requests verbally.	55
41. Mother usually responds verbally to child's talking.	56
42. Mother spontaneously praises child's appearance or behavior at least once during the visit.	57
43. When speaking of or to child, mother's voice conveys positive feeling.	58
44. Mother sets up situation that allows child to show off during visit.	59
BLANK	
	b b 60 61

B. Other Observations

- |   |    |
|---|----|
| 1. Was the home in need of major repair? yes (2), no (1)  | 62 |
| 2. Type of structure in which family lives: mobile home (1), farm house (2), modern (3), duplex (4), other, specify (5) _____ | 63 |

Columns 64-76 reserved for frequency scale on questions IV

Other notes: \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_

THE HOME ENVIRONMENT AND MATERNAL ALIENATION: THEIR RELATIONSHIP  
WITH THE SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN

By

MARCUS RALPH EARLE

B.S., University of Redlands, 1983

---

AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S THESIS

submitted in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Family and Child Development

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY  
Manhattan, Kansas

1985

## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this thesis was to explore the effect of the home environment and mother's feelings of social alienation on children's social development. Previous research was reviewed and the following hypotheses were formulated: (1) measures of the home environment (i.e., Environmental Assessment Index, Parent-Child Interactions) are positively correlated with measures of children's social development; (2) maternal alienation scores are negatively correlated with the measures of children's social development.

Children's social development was measured by the Iowa Social Competency Scales (I.S.C.S.) (Pease, Clark, Crase, 1979). The I.S.C.S. six factors for mothers of school age children are Task Oriented, Leader, Physically Active, Affectionate with Parent, Apprehensive, and Disruptive Behavior. Only the mothers' data, which was more complete, was used in the analysis.

A 44-item observational/interview instrument developed by the NC-124 regional research team and based on the HOME (Bradley & Caldwell, 1976), was used as the measure of the quality of the children's home environment. This environmental assessment index has been reported to be predictive of later intellectual functioning (Poresky, 1984).

This thesis involves the analysis of data on 41 rural children between six and 11 years old collected as part of the longitudinal North Central Regional Research project on children's mental and social development (NC-124, 1981). This data set includes the measures described above and other

measures of family functioning. A longitudinal, correlational analysis was used to assess the degree of influence the home environment and maternal feelings of alienation have on children's social development.

The correlation coefficients between the antecedent variables and I.S.C.S. scales provided only minimal support (i.e., only four of the possible 36 primary relationships were significant) for the two hypotheses. The first year environmental assessment index was longitudinally associated with the Leader scale and the third year index was concurrently negatively associated with the Apprehensive scale. Concurrent third year maternal feelings of alienation were positively associated only with the Physically Active scale. Finally, the longitudinal parent-child interaction score was positively associated with the Leader scale. Recommendations for future research and implications for practitioners are reviewed.